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# Self-powered solution of synchronous current inversion and energy extraction (SCIEE) for electromagnetic energy harvesting enhancement

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## Abstract

Self-powered and self-start issues are essential for the standalone applications of switched-mode interface circuits for micro-generators. This paper introduces a self-powered and self-starting solution for small-scale electromagnetic energy harvesters (EMEHs). The self-start solution uses a passive voltage multiplier and an energy buffer-release (EBR) circuit to kickstart the circuit during cold start-up. Introducing an EBR mechanism in the start-up process reduces the required voltage amplitude for cold-start. The EBR circuit features low power dissipation and adjustable thresholds. The operation principle of the proposed EBR circuit is elaborated. The voltage thresholds are theoretically derived and experimentally validated. In experiments, the proposed start-up circuit is applied to the synchronized current inversion and energy extraction circuit, which enhances the harvested power of a low-voltage EMEH. Experiments show that it can start at a relatively low input voltage amplitude, as low as 1.35 V. The total power consumption of the start-up and control circuits accounts for 8.8% of the harvested power at 14 V load voltage. The EBR circuit only dissipates around 46  $\mu$ W.

Keywords: energy harvesting, self-powered solution, cold start, synchronized switch

## 1. Introduction

Over the last decades, the Internet of Things (IoT) technology has grown rapidly. As the number of IoT devices grows, replacing or recharging batteries has become a significant obstacle to deploying and maintaining numerous IoT devices in various scenarios. On the other hand, ambient energy harvesting can

power IoT devices to enable self-powered, long-term sensing applications, such as structural health monitoring or marine environment monitoring [1, 2]. One of the electromechanical energy harvesters commonly used in kinetic energy harvesting is the electromagnetic energy harvester (EMEH) [3]. They are also referred to as electromagnetic (EM) generators [4]. Most EMEHs aim at harvesting energy from translational movement [5] and rotational movement [2, 6, 7]. Some studies also use frequency-up conversion mechanisms to convert translational movement into high-speed rotational movements [8, 9] for better generation.

Different interface circuits have been proposed to harvest energy from EMEH. Full bridge rectifiers (FBR) or voltage multipliers are easy to implement, but their output power is relatively low. They are usually used for the cold-start

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process [10]. PWM-based topologies are based on classic PWM converters, such as boost converters [11–13]. They can enhance output power, boost output voltage, and reduce the power dissipation caused by diode voltage drop in the FBR solution. Some designs reuse the EM coil as the inductor [14].

The synchronized switch technique was initially proposed for piezoelectric energy harvesters [15] and later transferred to their EMEH counterparts [5]. The synchronized switch technique can increase the harvested power of piezoelectric devices several times compared with FBRs [16]. Different synchronized switch circuits, such as synchronized electric charge extraction (SECE) [17] and synchronized inversion and charge extraction [18], have been proposed for piezoelectric energy harvesting enhancement. For EMEH, the first synchronized switch circuit is named synchronized magnetic flux extraction (SMFE) [5]. SMFE is designed by taking a reciprocal design of SECE for piezoelectric energy harvesters, i.e. swapping the roles between current and voltage. An improved and self-powered version of SMFE, named synchronous switch energy extraction (SSEE), is proposed in [19]. The measured harvested power of the SSEE circuit is nearly twice the maximum output power of a full-bridge rectifier under the same mechanical excitation. There are also some other self-powered designs of SMFE, including [20] and [21]. The synchronous current inversion (CI) and energy extraction (SCIEE) circuit has been proposed for EMEH [22]. It can harvest more energy than SSEE and PWM-based interface circuits when the quality factor of the energy harvester is relatively high.

In the early PWM-based or synchronized switch interface circuits, external power sources are required to start and power the control circuit [5, 23]. The self-powered and self-start solution of switched-mode interface circuits is crucial for standalone applications.

Some self-powered and self-start solutions have been proposed in recent years. In [20], a self-powered version of SMFE is proposed. The control circuit uses comparators and logic gates. The start-up circuit consists of a half-wave rectifier and a DC–DC regulator IC. The rectified output of the EMEH is fed to an LTC3388, a boost converter IC, to power the control circuit. In [10], a voltage multiplier is employed to cold start the circuit. An additional voltage multiplier is connected to the energy harvester. The output of the voltage multiplier directly powers the control circuit. In [19], the control circuit directly draws power from the load side. The interface circuit in [19] is intrinsically a voltage doubler when all MOSFETs are off. So, the circuit can start without an additional passive rectifier. However, the load must be manually disconnected before cold start-up, or the rectified energy will drain from the load, resulting in a start-up failure.

Existing start-up methods usually utilize passive rectification. For a successful start-up, the passive rectification should be able to output enough power and overcome the leakage current of the control circuit during the start-up process. It should also provide enough power to overcome the surge current at turn-on [24]. Previous papers have reported that the energy output of EMEHs increases drastically after start-up [5, 19]. Therefore, the energy harvesting system has the potential to

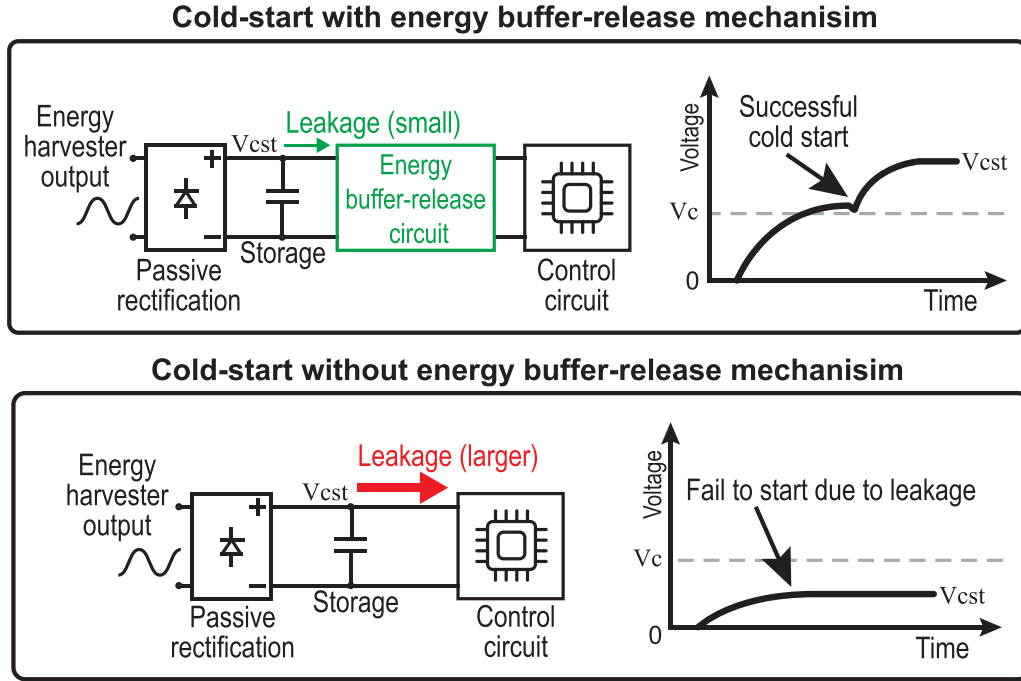
operate at a lower input voltage, even when the energy output is not enough to power the control circuit before start-up. When a successful cold start-up is somehow achieved, the energy harvesting system will be able to provide sufficient power for the control circuit and operate continuously afterward, thanks to the increased energy output of the EMEH.

In EMEH systems using synchronized switch techniques, existing self-powered solutions are limited to SSEE and SMFE circuits; the SCIEE circuit currently lacks a self-powered and self-start solution. The self-start solutions of existing synchronized switch circuits are based on passive rectification that requires the source's output voltage to be relatively high. This paper proposes a self-start and self-powered method to fill this technical gap. As figure 1 shows, the proposed method introduces an EBR mechanism (EBRM) in the start-up circuit, located between the passive rectification stage and the control circuit. The EBR circuit reduces the leakage of the control circuit before start-up, thereby enhancing the cold-start ability of the system.

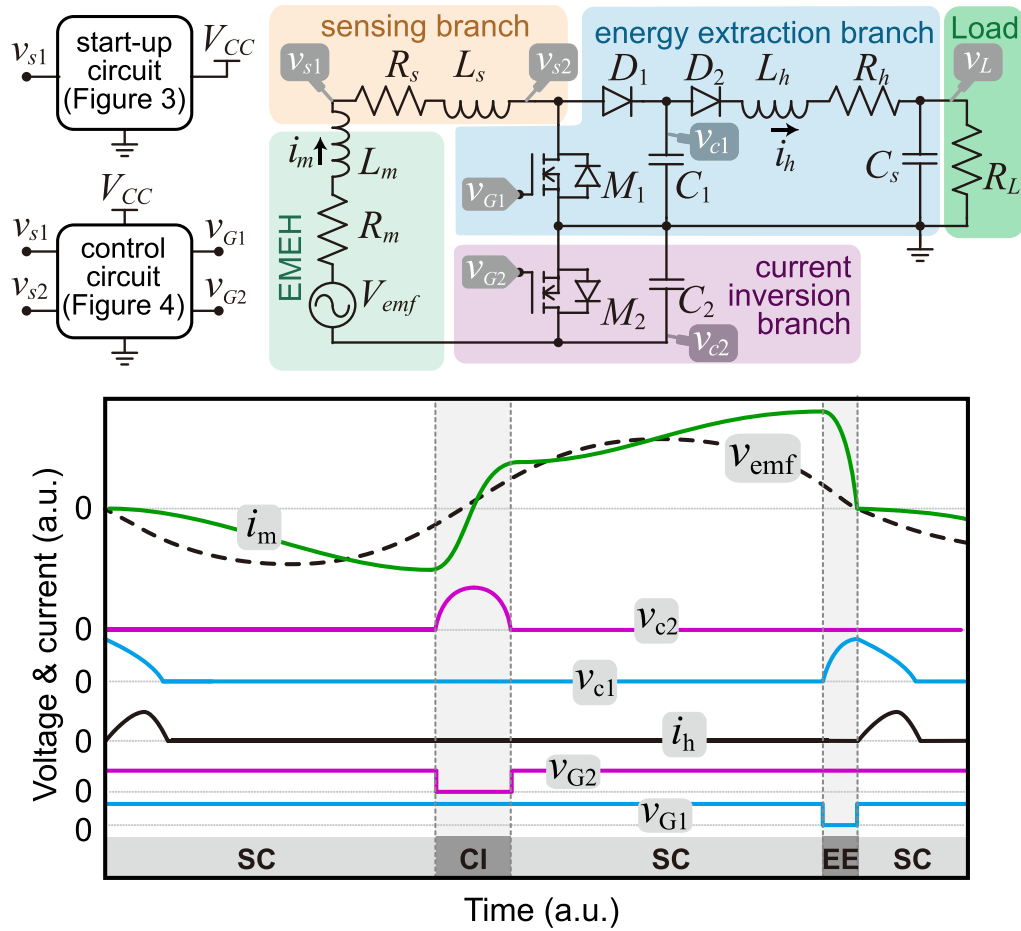
## 2. Operation principle of SCIEE circuit

The operating principle of the SCIEE circuit is briefly presented as an example of a synchronized switch interface circuit and to demonstrate how the proposed self-powered start-up solution can be applied. Figure 2 shows the topology and operation waveform of the SCIEE circuit.  $L_m$  is the internal inductance of the EMEH.  $L_s$  is a small sensing inductor for current peak sensing.  $R_s$ ,  $R_m$ , and  $R_h$  are the ESRs of the corresponding inductors. The quality factor of  $L_s$  is set to a large number, so that a zero crossing point (ZCP) of the voltage across the sensing inductor is close to a current peak. The output storage capacitor  $C_s$  is much larger than the other capacitors.  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are for temporary energy transfer. The resonance LC cycle of  $C_1$  and  $L_m$  or  $C_2$  and  $L_m$  is much smaller than that of the EM source  $V_{emf}$ . The source terminals of transistors  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are connected to ground, allowing the control circuit to drive them directly. More details on the start-up circuit and control circuit are in sections 3 and 4.

In regular operation, transistors  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are turned on to short-circuit the EMEH. At the negative half-cycle current peak,  $M_2$  switches off for one half of an  $L_m$ – $C_2$  cycle during the CI phase. This instance is also when  $V_{emf}$  crosses zero from negative to positive. It forces the current  $i_m$  inverses from negative to positive. Then the EMEH is again short-circuited to accumulate more energy inside the EMEH. At zero-crossing instants of  $V_{emf}$  from positive to negative,  $M_1$  switches off for approximately one-fourth of an  $L_m$ – $C_1$  cycle during the energy extraction (EE) phase, transferring the energy stored in the EMEH to  $C_1$ . The voltage spikes on  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  during the CI and EE phases can power the control circuit. This paper elaborates on the self-powered solution of the SCIEE circuit. Still, the proposed start-up solution also has the potential to be applied to other synchronized switch interface circuits that utilize passive rectification for cold start-up, such as the SSEE circuit [19] or the SMFE circuit [20].

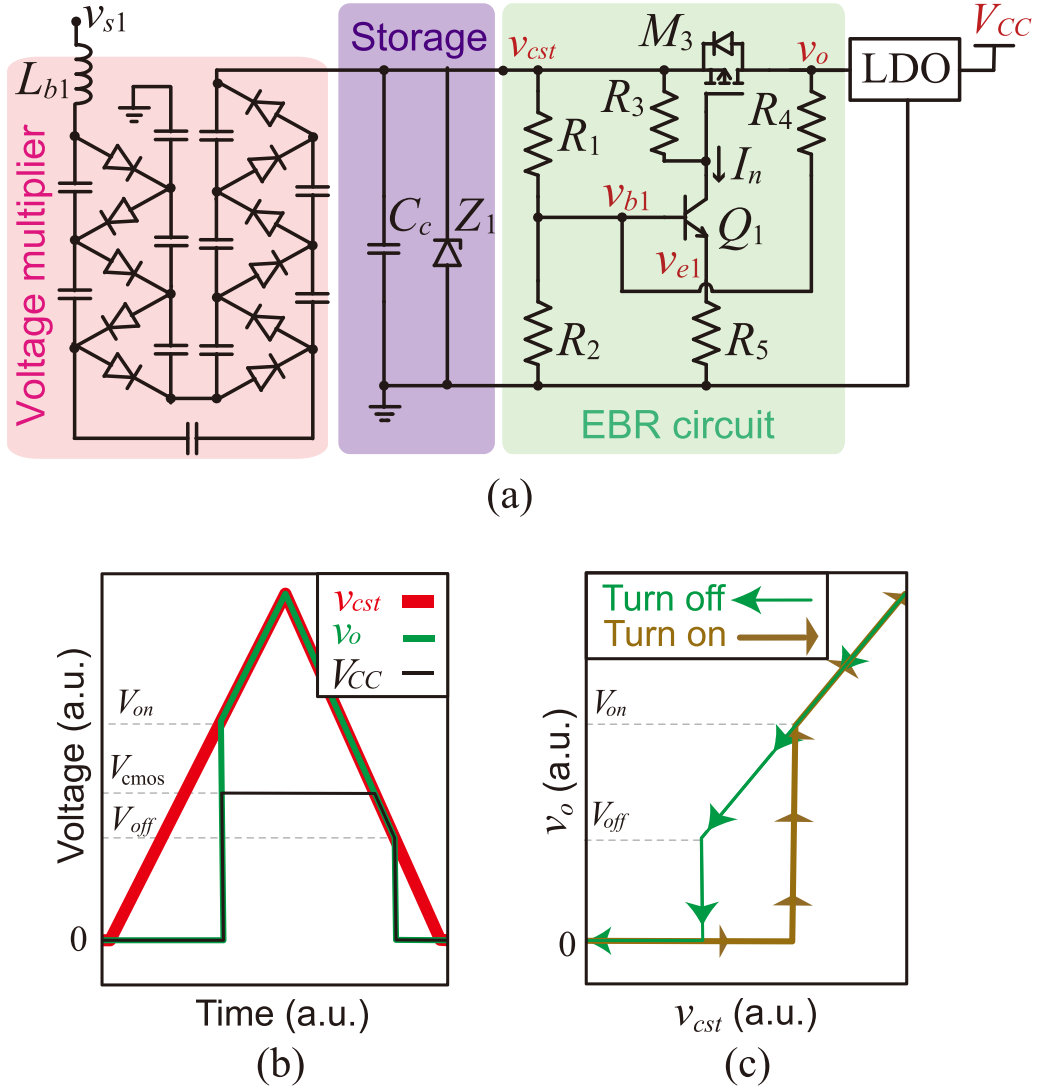


**Figure 1.** Proposed start-up solution of adding the energy buffer-release (EBR) mechanism in the cold-start process.  $V_c$  is the voltage required by the control circuit.



**Figure 2.** Circuit topology and typical operation waveform of the SCIEE circuit. ‘CI’ stands for current inversion, ‘EE’ stands for energy extraction, ‘SC’ stands for short circuit, and ‘a.u.’ stands for any unit.





**Figure 3.** Start-up circuit. (a) Topology. (b) Voltage waveform of the energy buffer-release (EBR) and regulation parts. (c) Voltage hysteresis of the energy buffer-release circuit during the turn-on and turn-off process.

### 3. Proposed start-up circuit

#### 3.1. Operation principle

As section 2 has discussed, the voltage spikes during the CI and EE phases can power the control circuit. The start-up circuit requires the following features:

- Passively rectify and boost the output voltage during the start-up process.
- Ultra-low power dissipation in the EBR circuit during start-up to operate at low input voltages.
- Capability to withstand high input voltage levels during regular operation.

Considering the above requirements, a start-up circuit is designed based on discrete circuit elements.

Figure 3(a) shows the topology of the proposed start-up circuit. A voltage multiplier boosts the voltage from the  $v_{s1}$  node

before feeding it to the storage capacitor  $C_c$ . The storage capacitor is connected to the EBR circuit. The EBR circuit manages the energy stored in  $C_c$  and determines when to activate the rest of the system. This paper uses a six-stage voltage multiplier to achieve a lower start-up voltage. During the cold-start process,  $C_2$  and the body diode of  $M_1$  form a path to charge the voltage multiplier with a pulsed DC voltage from the source. Zener diode  $Z_1$  and inductor  $L_{b1}$  are for protection purposes. They can be neglected during start-up because  $L_{b1}$ 's impedance is relatively small at the source frequency, and  $Z_1$  is almost an open circuit when the voltage across  $C_c$  is below the zener voltage of  $Z_1$ .

The output power of the voltage multiplier cannot meet the power requirement of the control circuit when the rest of the system is not operating. So, the EBR circuit buffers the incoming energy in  $C_c$  and releases it in a burst to kickstart the system. Figures 3(b) and (c) show the operation waveform and voltage hysteresis of the EBR circuit, respectively. When the input voltage of the EBR circuit,  $v_{cst}$ , rises above a predefined

threshold, the switch  $M_3$  turns on, releasing the stored energy to the output. Once activated, the circuit remains on until  $v_{cst}$  falls below a lower threshold, at which point it turns off.

The EBRM realized by the proposed circuit is crucial for the self-start-up process. During start-up,  $C_c$  is charged through the voltage multiplier, so the voltage across  $C_c$ , denoted as  $v_{cst}$ , increases. The base-emitter voltage of  $Q_1$  increases with the increasing  $v_{cst}$ , so  $I_n$  also increases. As more current flows through  $R_3$ , the gate-to-source voltage of  $M_3$ ,  $v_{gs3}$ , decreases towards a more negative value. When  $v_{gs3}$  attains its threshold,  $M_3$  conducts. A small current flows through  $M_3$ , and some reaches the base of  $Q_1$  through  $R_4$ , causing  $I_n$  to increase further. Such a positive feedback loop fully turns on  $M_3$  and  $Q_1$ . Then, the energy stored in  $C_c$  is released to the input of the low-dropout (LDO) regulator chip. The LDO protects the control circuit from high voltages during regular operation and provides a constant  $V_{cmos}$  to start up and power the control circuit. After power is delivered to the control circuit, the system must still be powered for a few source cycles before the main circuit is activated to harvest sufficient power to make ends meet. Therefore,  $C_c$  should be sufficiently large to get over this transition. Meanwhile, the voltage hysteresis between the on and off thresholds should ensure sufficient released energy for a successful start-up.

If the kickstart succeeds, the transducer's power will increase drastically. The energy available from the voltage multiplier will allow the control circuit to operate continuously. However, it will also result in a very high  $v_{cst}$ . So the zener diode  $Z_1$  and the LDO regulator can protect the control circuit and provide a suitable digital voltage  $V_{cmos}$  to the control circuit.  $L_{b1}$  can partially block the voltage spikes produced during the CI and EE phases, thereby reducing the energy delivered to the voltage multiplier during regular operation. It helps to reduce the power dissipation on  $Z_1$ .

### 3.2. Theoretical analysis

The turn-on threshold  $V_{on}$  is defined as the value of  $v_{cst}$  at which  $v_{gs3}$  reaches the threshold voltage of  $M_3$ . The current  $I_n$  at this moment is denoted as  $I_{n,cr}$ , and the threshold voltage of  $M_3$  is denoted as  $V_{th,p}$ .

$$I_{n,cr} = |V_{th,p}|/R_3. \quad (1)$$

Since  $I_n$  is the collector current of  $Q_1$ , the base-emitter voltage difference of  $Q_1$  is given as follows:

$$v_{be1,cr} = v_{b1,cr} - v_{e1,cr} = V_T \ln(I_{n,cr}/I_s). \quad (2)$$

$V_T$  is the thermal voltage, around 25.9 mV at room temperature.  $I_s$  is the constant saturation current of  $Q_1$ , which can be extracted from the datasheet or the SPICE simulation models. Given a sufficiently large current gain of  $Q_1$ , we have

$$v_{e1,cr} \approx I_{n,cr}R_5. \quad (3)$$

$R_1$ ,  $R_2$ ,  $R_4$ , and the input impedance of the LDO form a voltage divider. Since the input impedance of the LDO is much lower

than  $R_4$ , when  $M_3$  is off,  $v_o = 0$ . The relationship between  $V_{on}$  and  $v_{b1,cr}$  can be formulated as follows

$$V_{on} = \frac{R_1 + R_2 \parallel R_4}{R_2 \parallel R_4} v_{b1,cr}, \quad (4)$$

where ' $\parallel$ ' denotes the parallel connecting relation.

Substituting (2)–(3) into (4), the turn-on threshold is formulated as follows

$$V_{on} = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_1 R_4 + R_2 R_4}{R_2 R_4} \left[ I_{n,cr} R_5 + V_T \ln \left( \frac{I_{n,cr}}{I_s} \right) \right]. \quad (5)$$

After  $M_3$  conducts,  $v_o = v_{cst}$ .  $R_4$  is in parallel with  $R_1$ . Likewise, the turn-off threshold is as follows:

$$V_{off} = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_1 R_4 + R_2 R_4}{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_4} \left[ I_{n,cr} R_5 + V_T \ln \left( \frac{I_{n,cr}}{I_s} \right) \right]. \quad (6)$$

According to (4) and (6),  $V_{on}$  is larger than  $V_{off}$  given the additional term  $R_1 R_2$  in the denominator in (6). One can adjust  $V_{on}$  and  $V_{off}$  by tuning the resistance of  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ , and  $R_4$ .

### 3.3. Parameter design process

We should set the turn-on and turn-off thresholds according to the voltage requirement of the control circuit and the capacity of the storage capacitor  $C_c$ . The design goal of our setup is to set  $V_{on} = 4.8$  V and  $V_{off} = 2.4$  V so that the control circuit can be powered around five cycles after start-up when using a 100  $\mu$ F capacitor. The parameter design process of the EBR circuit is elaborated as an example to demonstrate the parameter design method.

The first step is to determine the transistors to use. We select BSS84PW ( $V_{th,p} = -1.5$  V) and MMBT3904 ( $I_s = 4.36 \times 10^{-15}$  A) as the transistors since they are low-cost. We start by setting  $R_3 = 15$  M $\Omega$  so that  $I_{n,cr} = |V_{th,p}|/R_3$  is around 100 nA. Setting  $I_{n,cr}$  small helps to achieve a low quiescent current.

Then, we set  $R_5$  so that  $v_{b1}$  is around 0.6 V at a critical point. Solving (2) gives the base-emitter voltage difference of  $Q_1$ . After solving (2) we have  $v_{b1} - v_{e1} = 0.43$  V in this setup. Then, the emitter voltage  $v_{e1}$  can be approximated by  $v_{e1} = I_{n,cr} R_5$ . In this example, we set  $R_5 = 1.5$  M $\Omega$  so that solving (2) gives that  $v_{b1} = 0.57$  V at critical points. A larger  $R_5$  results in a smaller  $R_1$  and  $R_4$ . Resistors larger than 20 M $\Omega$  are relatively expensive.  $R_5$  helps to keep the resistor values in a reasonable region.

The next step is to set the current across  $R_2$  to be a few times larger than  $I_{n,cr}$ , so that the base current of  $Q_1$  does not impact the voltage dividing network while keeping the overall quiescent current small. The current across  $R_2$  is given by  $V_{b1}/R_2$ . In this case,  $R_2$  is set to 2.4 M $\Omega$ . After that,  $R_1$  and  $R_4$  can be obtained by substituting values into (5) and (6). The results are  $R_1 = R_4 \approx 15$  M $\Omega$ .

## 4. Switch control circuit

Figure 4 shows the topology of the switch control circuit, and figure 5 shows the operation waveforms of the control circuit. The zero-crossing point of the voltage across  $L_s$ , which is

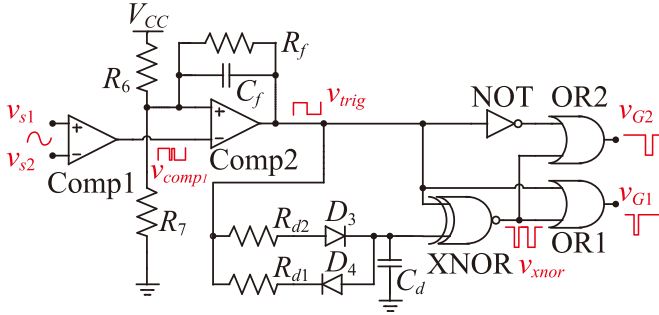


Figure 4. Switch control circuit.

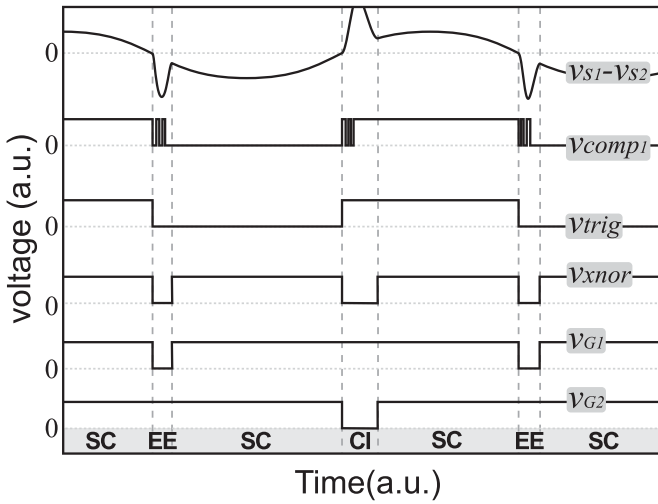


Figure 5. Operation waveforms of the control circuit. CI, EE, and SC correspond to the operational phases in figure 2.

$v_{s1} - v_{s2}$ , indicates the peaks and valleys of the current through the sensing inductor [19]. Comparator comp1 detects the zero-crossing points of  $v_{s1} - v_{s2}$  and converts them into the rising and falling edges of  $v_{comp1}$ . There is some high-frequency noise near the switching points of  $v_{comp1}$  because of switching actions and the nature of comparators when operating near the ZCP. Comp2,  $R_6$ ,  $R_7$ , and  $C_f$  filter the noise in the output of Comp1 to generate a trigger signal  $v_{trig}$ .  $v_{trig}$  and a delayed copy of itself are sent to the input of an XNOR gate, to generate short inverted voltage pulses. The output of the XOR gate,  $v_{xor}$ , contains the turn-off intervals for both switches. This signal goes through OR gates to generate control signals for  $M_1$  and  $M_2$ .

Adjusting  $R_{d1}$  and  $R_{d2}$  changes the turn-off intervals of gating signal  $v_{G1}$  and  $v_{G2}$ , respectively. The body diodes of  $M_2$  and  $M_1$  form current paths at the ends of the CI and EE phases. So the turn-off intervals of  $M_2$  and  $M_1$  do not need to be precise. The turn-off interval of  $M_1$  (controlled by  $v_{G1}$ ) should be longer than the time duration of the EE phase. The voltage drops of diodes  $D_3$  and  $D_4$  have a negligible effect on the delay time. Let the diode voltage drop be  $V_D$ . At a rising edge of  $v_{trig}$ ,  $D_3$  will cause  $C_d$  to be charged to  $V_{CC} - V_D$  instead of  $V_{CC}$ . At a falling edge,  $C_d$  will be discharged to  $V_D$  instead of 0 V. Because these offsets are symmetric, their effects cancel each other, leaving the

delay time essentially unchanged compared to ideal diodes. Therefore,  $R_{d1}$  can be determined according to the relation  $R_{d1} > \pi \sqrt{(L_m + L_s) C_1} / (1.4 C_d)$ . Likewise,  $R_{d2}$  can be determined according to  $R_{d2} > \pi \sqrt{(L_m + L_s) C_2} / (0.7 C_d)$ .

## 5. Experiments

### 5.1. Experiential setup

Printed circuit board assemblies (PCBA) are manufactured to validate the proposed self-start solution. Figure 6 shows the circuit prototype of the start-up circuit. The prototyped start-up circuit powers an SCIEE circuit and its control circuit. Figure 7(a) shows the prototyped system and experimental setup. The EMEH is a rotational one. A brushless DC motor provides mechanical excitation for the EMEH. Figure 7(b) shows the block diagram of the experimental setup. A current probe (CYBERTEK CP8030H) measures the current of the EMEH. The current and voltage waveforms of the system are recorded by an oscilloscope (RIGOL MSO4014). The system's load is different resistors, and the oscilloscope also measures the load voltage  $V_L$ . Table 1 lists the components and parameters in the experiment.

### 5.2. Circuit operation

The first experiment validates the operation of the proposed self-powered solution. The system is not pre-charged, so  $v_{cst}$  starts from 0 V at the start of the experiment. The  $V_{emf}$  is measured by measuring the open-circuit voltage of the EMEH. Figure 8 shows the measured  $V_{emf}$ .  $V_{emf}$  is a sinusoidal voltage with an amplitude of 1.85 V and a frequency of 333 Hz. The load  $R_L$  is a 325  $\Omega$  resistor. Figure 9 shows the voltage and current waveforms in a series of start, shutdown, and restart actions. From the recorded results, the circuit can cold-start as designed. During the cold start-up, the EMEH charges  $C_c$  through the voltage multiplier; therefore,  $v_{cst}$  slowly rises. During the cold start-up,  $V_{CC} = 0$ , indicating the EBR circuit keeps the control circuit disconnected in this process. The system self-starts and operates normally when  $v_{cst}$  reaches  $V_{on}$ . Later, when the EMEH stops,  $v_{cst}$  drops below  $V_{off}$  shortly after. The EBR circuit shuts down the system.  $v_{cst}$  remains at  $V_{off}$  until the mechanical input starts again. From the enlarged view on the right of figure 9, the system's operation waveforms agree with the conceptual ones.

To measure the minimum start voltage in this setup, we reduce the rotational speed until the circuit barely manages to cold start. In this experiment, the circuit successfully starts from zero  $v_{cst}$  when the EMEH rotates at a lower speed, generating an open-circuit voltage with a 270 Hz frequency and an amplitude of 1.35 V. Figure 10 shows the cold start process under these conditions. In figures 9 and 10,  $v_{cst}$  is recorded through a 10:1 resistor dividing network with a total resistance of 100 M $\Omega$  to reduce the leakage current of the voltage probe, so 1 V on the oscilloscope corresponds to 10 V of the actual value.

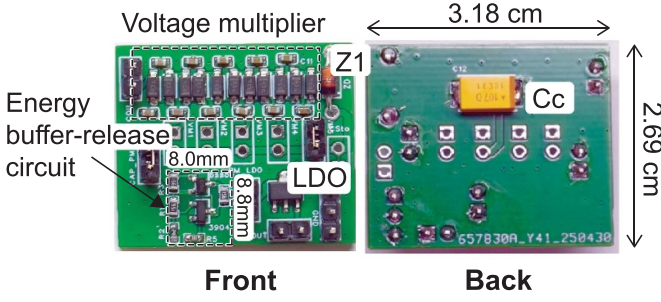
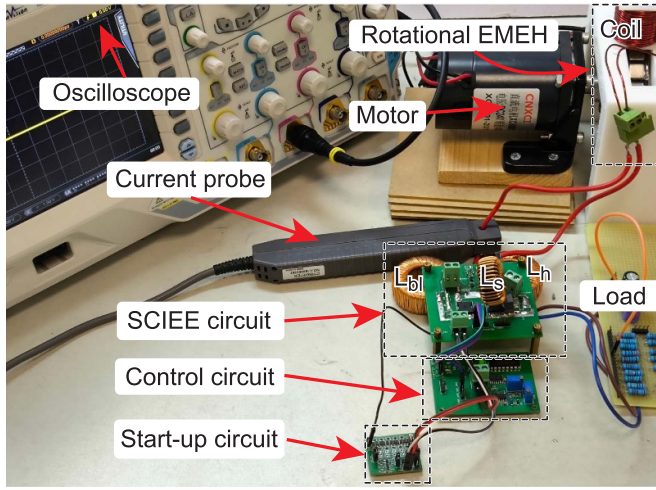
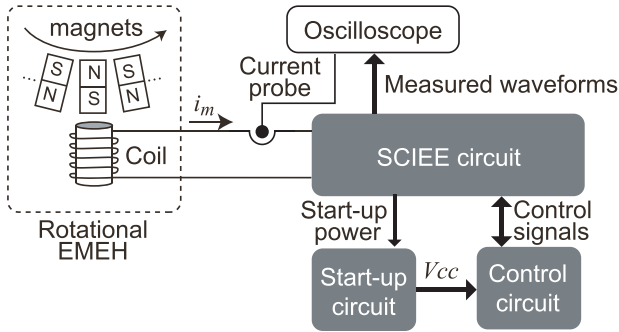


Figure 6. Prototyped start-up circuit.



(a)



(b)

Figure 7. Experimental setup. (a) Overview of test setup. (b) Block diagram.

### 5.3. Evaluation of the proposed EBR circuit

The second experiment evaluates the proposed EBR circuit. In this experiment, the EBR circuit is isolated from the system. A 20 k $\Omega$  resistor is connected between  $v_o$  and ground as the load. A triangular wave is fed to  $v_{cst}$  to observe the behavior of the EBR part.  $v_o$  is measured under different  $R_1$  and  $R_4$ . We extract the turn-on and turn-off voltage thresholds from the recorded  $v_o$  waveform. Figure 11 shows one of the recorded waveforms when  $R_1 = R_4 = 15$  M $\Omega$ . The transient response of the EBR circuit agrees with the theoretical prediction.

The measured turn-on and turn-off thresholds of the EBR circuit are compared to theoretically calculated and simulated

Table 1. Components and parameters in the experiment.

Component	Value / Type
$L_m$	1.2 mH (ESR $R_m = 0.27$ $\Omega$ )
$L_h, L_{bl}$	15 mH (ESR $R_h = 2.4$ $\Omega$ )
$L_s$	0.2 mH (ESR $R_s = 38$ m $\Omega$ )
$C_1, C_2, C_c, C_s$	2 $\mu$ F, 2 $\mu$ F, 100 $\mu$ F, 700 $\mu$ F
$R_1, R_2, R_3, R_4, R_5$	15 M $\Omega$ , 2.4 M $\Omega$ , 15 M $\Omega$ , 15 M $\Omega$ , 1.5 M $\Omega$
$C_d, R_{d1}, R_{d2}$	1 nF, 150 k $\Omega$ , 300 k $\Omega$
$R_6, R_7, R_f, C_f$	120 k $\Omega$ , 120 k $\Omega$ , 10 M $\Omega$ , 20 nF
Diodes $D_1, D_2$	1N4004
Voltage multiplier diodes	MBR0530
Voltage multiplier capacitors	2.2 $\mu$ F
Comparators	LMC7211BIM5
LDO	HT7544
OR, XNOR, NOT gates	CD4071, CD4077, CD4049
Zener diode $Z_1$	1N4745A
$Q_1, M_3$	MMBT3904, BSS84
$M_1, M_2$	IP015N10N5

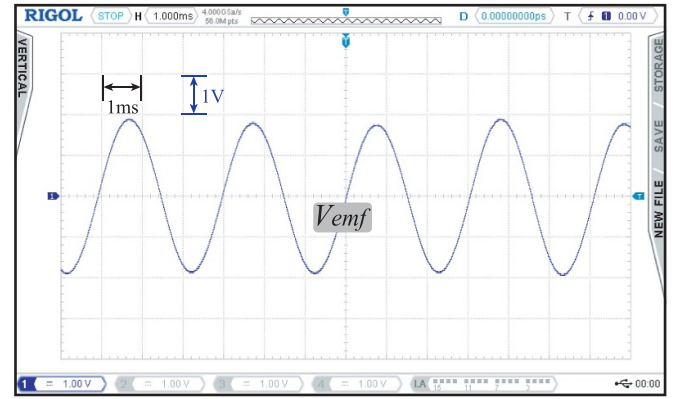


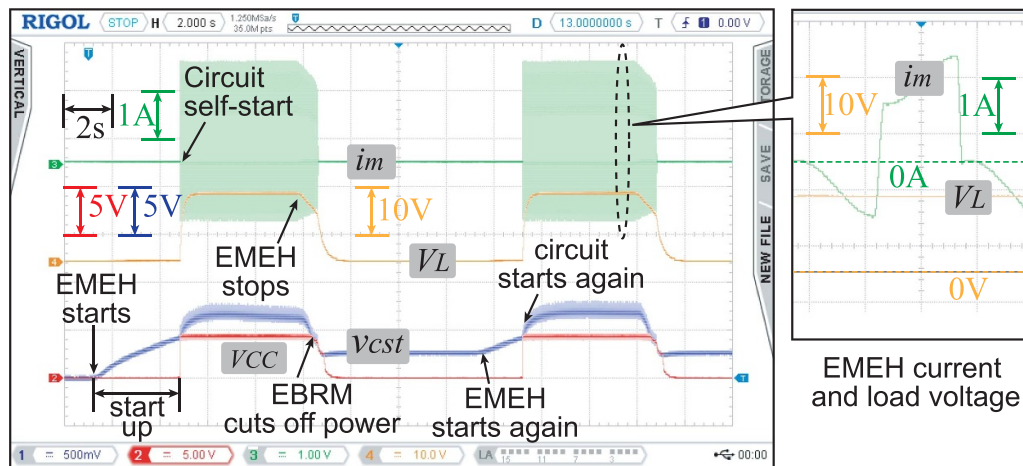
Figure 8. Measured open-circuit voltage of the EMEH in the experiment.

values. The simulated voltage thresholds are obtained from SPICE simulation results. Figure 12(a) shows the results under different  $R_1$ . Figure 12(b) shows the results under different  $R_4$ . The theory, simulation, and experiment show good agreement.

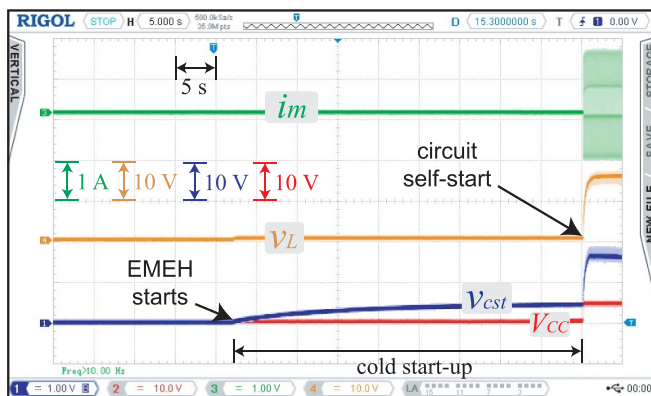
We measure the input leakage current of the proposed energy buffer–release circuit before turn-on to evaluate its dissipation during start-up. The leakage current is measured using the Keysight CX3322A device current analyzer. With  $R_1 = R_4 = 15$  M $\Omega$  and an input voltage of 2.4 V, the leakage current of the proposed energy buffer–release circuit is 0.14  $\mu$ A. Under identical conditions, the control circuit draws around 64.4  $\mu$ A. These results confirm that the energy buffer–release circuit exhibits significantly lower input leakage before start-up, thereby enhancing the cold-start ability, as illustrated in figure 1.

Using the same measurement setup, we also measured the input leakage current of LTC3108 and LTC3588 at 2.4 V. The LTC3108 and LTC3588 integrate rectification, cold-start, energy management, and voltage regulation, making them commonly used in energy harvesting applications [25–27].

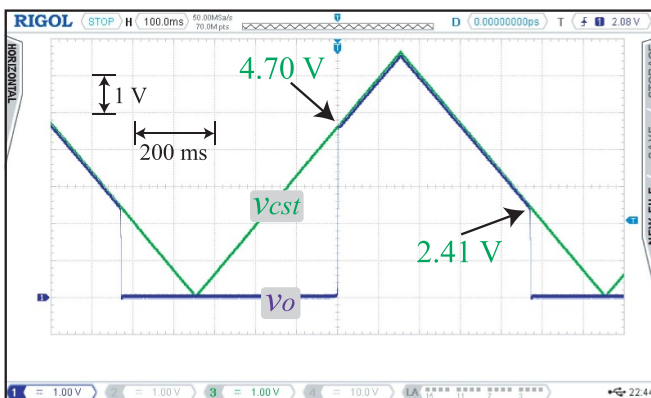




**Figure 9.** Voltage and current waveform in the experiment during cold start and stop transients.  $V_L$ ,  $i_m$ ,  $V_{est}$  and  $V_{CC}$  corresponds to figure 2.



**Figure 10.** The recorded voltage and current waveform in the cold start process at 1.35 V input.



**Figure 11.** Measured voltage transients of the energy buffer-release circuit.  $R_1 = R_4 = 15 \text{ M}\Omega$ .

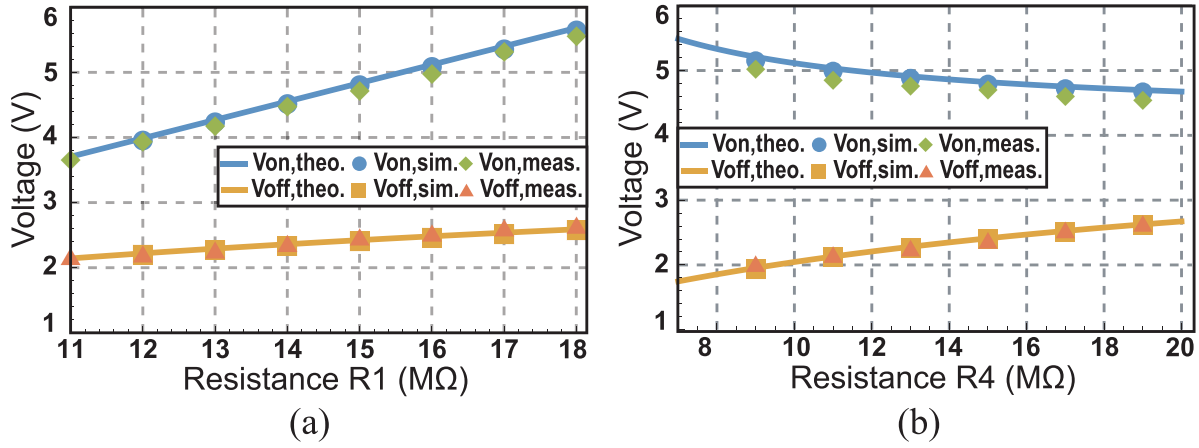
Since the proposed energy buffer-release circuit is designed for cold-start and energy management, we compare the cold-start and energy management performance of the proposed energy buffer-release circuit with those of the two ICs' corresponding features. The LTC3108 begins to operate at 2.5 V, so we measure the input leakage at 2.4 V input to evaluate

the cold-start capability. The leakage measured at  $V_{\text{AUX}}$  pin of LTC3108 is  $6.6 \mu\text{A}$ , and the leakage measured at  $V_{\text{IN}}$  pin of LTC3588 is  $0.48 \mu\text{A}$ . Table 2 shows a summary of the comparison results.

The LTC3108's energy management strategy involves charging an auxiliary capacitor ( $C_{aux}$ ) at its  $V_{AUX}$  pin and then discharging it into the load once the voltage across  $C_{aux}$  exceeds 2.5 V. The activation of the discharge path increases the input current to a level comparable to the load current. If the load current demand exceeds the input current, the voltage cannot continue to rise, preventing a successful start-up. As a result, the LTC3108 cannot release energy in a burst for kickstarting. Therefore, the LTC3108 is typically used only with ultra-low-power loads. The proposed circuit maintains low leakage and supports energy buffering to higher voltage levels before release, enabling reliable cold-start under less favorable load conditions.

The LTC3588 supports energy buffer-release behavior via its built-in under-voltage lockout (UVLO) feature. However, the available turn-on thresholds are fixed at either 4.05 V or 5.05 V. The voltage hysteresis is fixed at three levels, ranging from 1.03 V to 1.38 V. The LTC3588 adjusts the turn-on and turn-off thresholds based on the programmed output voltage, so these thresholds are not independently adjustable. On the other hand, the proposed EBR circuit offers a broader and adjustable hysteresis window. The turn-on and turn-off thresholds can be set by selecting resistors. So, a smaller buffer capacitor  $C_c$  can achieve the same energy release for kick-starting. Regarding start-up capability, the proposed circuit demonstrates a lower input leakage of  $0.14 \mu\text{A}$  compared to the LTC3588's  $0.48 \mu\text{A}$ .

Compared to the fully integrated LTC3108 and LTC3588, the proposed energy buffer-release circuit achieves lower quiescent leakage and more adjustable turn-on and turn-off thresholds. The design is more cost-effective, even when considering the additional costs of rectification and voltage-regulation circuitry. Its configurable threshold levels and minimal overhead make it a flexible and cost-effective solution for implementing cold-start and energy management functions in energy harvesting systems.



**Figure 12.** Theoretical, simulated, and measured voltage thresholds of the energy buffer-release circuit. (a) Results under different  $R_1$  when  $R_4 = 15$  MΩ. (b) Results under different  $R_4$  when  $R_1 = 15$  MΩ.

**Table 2.** Comparison between proposed energy buffer-release circuit and commercial ICs commonly used for energy harvesting.

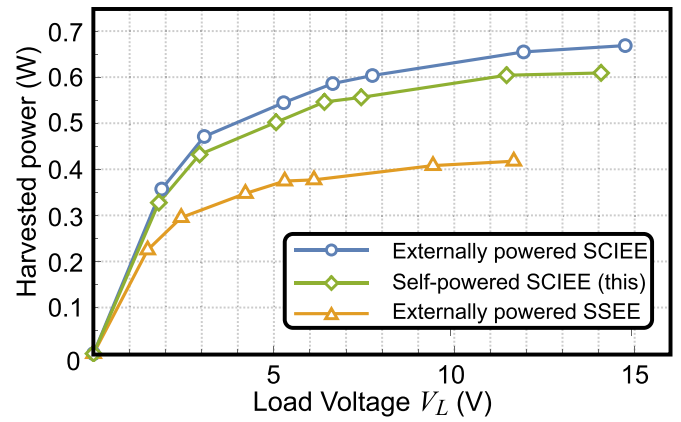
Design	Buffer-release capability	Leakage current ( $\mu$ A)	Turn-on threshold	Voltage hysteresis	Max input voltage (V)	Relative cost
LTC-3108	—	6.6	Fixed	—	6	High
LTC-3588	Yes	0.48	Fixed <sup>a</sup>	Fixed <sup>a</sup>	18	High
Proposed	Yes	0.14	Adjustable	Adjustable	20	Low

<sup>a</sup> User-selectable between two or three values. Turn-on threshold can be 4.05 or 5.05 V, and voltage hysteresis can be 1.03, 1.17, or 1.38 V.

#### 5.4. Energy harvesting performance

The third experiment compares the energy harvesting performance with and without this self-start and self-powered solution. The amplitude and frequency of  $V_{emf}$  in this experiment are also 1.85 V and 333 Hz, the same as the first experiment. We measure the output power by measuring the output voltage at different resistive loads. Another measurement is performed after removing the start-up circuit and using an external power supply (GW Instek GPD-3303D) to power the control circuit. We also recorded the output power of an externally powered SSEE circuit [19] fabricated with the same circuit components for comparison. The three measurements are under the same mechanical excitation. Figure 13 shows the harvested power in the three cases. The self-start and self-powered scheme utilizes a small portion of the harvested energy to realize the self-start-up and control. This portion is relatively small. The SCIEE circuit implemented with the proposed self-power solution can still harvest more energy than the SSEE circuit, even when the SSEE circuit is externally powered.

We calculate the total power dissipation of the start-up and control circuit by evaluating the difference in output power between the self-powered and externally powered cases. The total power dissipation of the auxiliary circuits is 29.6 mW at low output voltage and 59.3 mW at high output voltage, respectively. The power consumption increases with output voltage because, at higher output voltage, the peak value of  $v_{c1}$  also increases [22]. Therefore, more power is delivered to  $C_c$ , causing  $Z_1$  to dissipate more power and limit the increase in  $v_{cst}$ , thereby protecting the control circuit from overvoltage.



**Figure 13.** Measured output power. Circles are the output of the externally powered SCIEE circuit. Diamonds are the output of the SCIEE circuit, self-powered by the proposed solution. Triangles are the output of an externally powered SSEE circuit for comparison.

In the externally powered case, the measured power consumption of the control circuit is around five mW. So the start-up circuit dissipates 24.6–54.3 mW, depending on the load voltage. We use SPICE simulation to estimate the power consumption of different parts in the start-up and control circuits. Table 3 shows the breakdown of the power consumption of the start-up and control circuits obtained from the simulation. The LDO and  $Z_1$  consume most power. The EBR circuit consumes only around 46  $\mu$ W. The simulation result is close to the experimental one.

**Table 3.** Estimated power consumptions of the start-up and control circuits.

Component	Power (mW) <sup>a</sup>
Energy buffer-release part	$46.4 \times 10^{-3}$
Voltage multiplier	8.03
Zener diode D1	21.95
LDO	12.92
Control	04.98
$L_{bl}$	4.15
Total	52.07

<sup>a</sup> Simulation condition: source amplitude is 1.85 V @ 333 Hz; load voltage is 14 V.

**Table 4.** Comparison of interface circuits for EMEH enhancement and their cold-start solutions.

Circuits	Cold-start architecture	Minimum start voltage	Battery-free	Self-powered	Self start-up
Boost [23]	Battery	—	—	Yes	—
SMFE [20]	Rectification and LTC3388	3.5	Yes	Yes	Yes
SSEE [19]	Rectification	2.5	Yes	Yes	—
SMFE+SECE [21]	—	2.96 <sup>a</sup>	Yes	Yes	Yes
This	Rectification with EBRM	1.35	Yes	Yes	Yes

<sup>a</sup> A higher voltage amplitude is required for proper energy output.

Table 4 compares the proposed system with some relevant designs for EMEH. The interface circuit in [23] uses an auxiliary battery to realize self-sustaining operation. It can start at any transducer voltage, but the battery needs to be pre-charged. The circuit in [20] rectifies the transducer voltage using a half-wave rectifier and utilizes the LTC3388 to boost the rectified voltage. The interface circuit proposed in [19] does not require any additional start-up circuit; however, the load must be manually disconnected before the start-up process. The hybrid circuit in [21] uses an inductor with a relatively high inductance to generate the control signals. It does not need external circuits for control or start-up. But it requires a higher transducer voltage to operate.

## 6. Conclusion

Kinetic energy harvesting using EMEHs offers a promising approach to realize self-powered IoT systems in sensing and monitoring scenarios. Interface circuits play a key role in such self-powered systems. Prior studies have shown that the synchronized switch technique considerably improves the output power. Self-power and self-start functionality are essential for the standalone applications of such synchronized switch interface circuits.

This paper proposes a self-start and self-powered solution. It can start and power a SCIEE circuit to enhance the output power of EMEHs. The self-start circuit requires neither pre-charged batteries to run nor a manual load connection after

the energy is ready, and it helps the circuit to cold-start at a lower input voltage.

The start-up circuit employs an EBRM with a circuit consisting of two off-the-shelf transistors and several resistors. The EBR circuit demonstrates ultra-low power consumption. The EBRM helps the system to cold-start at low-voltage input conditions when passive rectification alone can not power the control circuit. Experiments demonstrate that the theoretical values of the EBR circuit and experimental results align well. The input leakage current of the EBR circuit, measured at 2.4 V, is 0.14  $\mu$ A. The leakage current is lower than that of the control circuit, as well as commercial ICs LTC3108 and LTC3588 under the same operating conditions.

Experimental results have validated the operation of the proposed self-start solution. The circuit can self-start at a relatively small input voltage amplitude of 1.35 V. It achieves the lowest start-up voltage among existing self-powered battery-free synchronized switch interface circuits for EM transducers. The proposed system can harvest more energy in experiments than an externally powered SSEE interface circuit. When the load voltage is 14 V, the EBR circuit dissipates 46  $\mu$ W. The power consumption of the cold start circuit and control circuit accounts for 8.8% of the harvested power.

Overall, the proposed self-powered solution realizes self-contained operation of an SCIEE energy harvesting circuit. The start-up solution enhances the system's start-up ability at low input voltage levels. Furthermore, the proposed method of adding the EBRM also provides new insights when designing the cold-start functionality of interface circuits for EMEHs.

## Data availability statement

The data cannot be made publicly available upon publication because no suitable repository exists for hosting data in this field of study. The data that support the findings of this study are available upon reasonable request from the authors.

## Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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